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ABSTRACT

The curriculum was designed to provide a systematic way of instructing apprentices in preparation for various trades in the area of human relations on and off the job which would provide the apprentice with skills and attitudes in dealing with others. The core curriculum is developed in 10 learning modules which are self-contained instructional packages: (1) how people differ, (2) how perceptions influence human behavior, (3) why people behave the way they do on the job, (4) how to live with everyday frustrations, (5) what motivates people to work, (6) adjusting to work, (7) groups: how they form and their influence on their members, (8) organizations: what they are and how they operate, (9) the issue of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, and (10) what leaders do and how they do it. Each module contains the following information: educational objectives, content, instructional suggestions, references, and background information. The objectives are based on expected terminal performance which the apprentice should exhibit at the end of the instruction. (Author/EC)

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HUMAN RELATIONS ON AND OFF THE JOB

UNIT 3

A CORE CURRICULUM OF RELATED INSTRUCTION FOR APPRENTICES

The University of the State of New York/THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
Bureau of Occupational and Career Curriculum Development Albany, New York 12234
1975

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FOREWORD

Apprentice training is a systematic way of providing the skilled workers necessary to supply current and future employment demands. Related instruction is an integral part of a planned apprentice training program — ranking in importance with the skills learned on the job. The related instruction provided to apprentices helps them better understand the trade and to know *why* things are done as well as *how* they are done.

A *Core Curriculum of Related Instruction for Apprentices* was designed to provide relevant instruction to apprentices preparing for a variety of trades. It includes the general topics appropriate to all who will be taking their place in the national workforce. Therefore, presentation of related instruction to a mixed group of apprentices becomes a feasible and manageable activity which helps fulfill the legal requirement for this component of a full apprentice program. It leaves the trade-specific information to be provided as the need arises.

The core curriculum is developed in major units or general topics. Modules within each unit are designed as self-contained instructional packages which can be selected for presentation to meet individual and program needs. The objectives of each module are expressed in terms of expected terminal performances which each apprentice should exhibit as a result of instruction. This allows any apprentice who is able to accomplish the student objectives to move on to another module. The program provides sufficient flexibility for the development of instruction to meet the specific needs of a variety of apprentices with differing backgrounds and expectations.

This unit, *Human Relations On and Off the Job*, is one of nine units that have been developed to provide the apprentice with skills and attitudes in dealing with others he is in contact with. The Administrative Considerations and Instructional Considerations which will be helpful to administrators and journeymen/instructors in developing and conducting an approvable course in related instruction are contained in Unit I, Introduction to Apprenticeship. It is suggested that reference to that unit be made by all who will instruct this unit.

Content relating to the core curriculum was developed under grant at the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, under the supervision of Professor Felician F. Foltman. Assistance relating to content was provided by Charles A. Stebbins, Associate in the Bureau of Trade and Technical Education, with the concurrence of Carl G. Benenati, Chief, who is responsible for the approval and conduct of related instructions programs for apprentices. The material developed was adapted to a curricular format and prepared for publication by Nelson S. Maurer, Associate in the Bureau of Occupational and Career Curriculum.

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CONTENTS

	Page
Foreword	3
Module 1 — How People Differ	5
Module 2 — How Perceptions Influence Human Behavior	13
Module 3 — Why People Behave the Way They Do on the Job	20
Module 4 — How to Live with Everyday Frustrations	26
Module 5 — What Motivates People to Work	33
Module 6 — Adjusting to Work	40
Module 7 — Groups: How They Form and Their Influence on Their Members	47
Module 8 — Organizations: What They Are and How They Operate	55
Module 9 — The Issue of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction	61
Module 10 — What Leaders Do and How They Do It	67

HOW PEOPLE DIFFER

Compares how people are alike and not alike and distinguishes the range and extent of these differences and explains the importance of such similarities and differences in the world of work

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Identify and explain the key terms and measures used when describing individual differences and similarities*

(2) *Classify the major areas in which human differences occur*

(3) *Identify how the major areas of human differences are measured and calibrated.*

(4) *Distinguish how people are different*

(5) *Explain how people are alike*

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(B) Maier, N.R.F. *Psychology in industrial organizations;* 4th. ed. New York, N.Y. Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1973.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Terms and Measures of Individual Differences • Common Evidence of People's Differences (1)	Point out that a skilled carpenter must have several kinds of muscular coordination, ability to learn, ability to judge distances, make measurements, figure angles, physical strength and endurance, balance, eyesight, ability to get along, ability to plan work, caution, honesty and the like. (Ref. B, pp. 216-217)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

That people differ from one another is obvious to anyone who is at all observant. Some persons can fly a jet airplane, others cannot; some can operate a large arc welder, others cannot; some like to work with their hands, others do not.

Even more obviously, people differ in physical appearance; just look around to see. And they differ in some things not so visible, such as disposition and intelligence.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
	Ask students to suggest the human abilities (aptitudes, temperaments, capabilities, and interests) required by persons in the following occupations: • Machinist • Plumber • Draftsman • Millwright	
• Common Terms and Their Meaning: Intelligence	Discuss with students some of the most commonly used terms and their meanings. (Ref. A.)	Intelligence is a much used and abused term. Everybody uses the term, talks about it, but there is little common agreement as to what it is. Consider, for example, the person who is a brilliant mathematician, but who doesn't know a sparkplug from a carburetor. Is he intelligent? Consider the person who received very poor school grades, but who is a mechanical whiz who can repair anything. Is he intelligent? Part of the difficulty with the term lies in the fact that for many years people have thought that there was something called general intelligence. Today psychologists tend to agree that intelligence is not a single unitary characteristic or trait of human beings. Instead, psychologists feel that intelligence consists of a number of mental abilities, all of which seem to relate to one another. Such mental abilities include memory, visualization of space relations, learning ability, perceptual speed (observations), work fluency, creativity, and maybe others. Since the idea of general intelligence is really a composite or cluster of mental abilities, it can be understood why it is said that the only precise definition of intelligence is "what the intelligence tests measure." Do a person's scores on an intelligence test correlate with probelm solving ability or the ability of a person to "deal rationally with his environment"? The answer is

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTINNS
Creativit, (1)	
Aptitudes and Abilities (1)	
Skilled vs. Unskilled (1)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

that our intelligence tests are not that precise. What intelligence tests do indicate is that persons who score high on such tests will probably perform satisfactorily in school. With a formal education, of course, many go on to occupations which are normally considered to be intellectual, such as the professions.

Although commonly used, creativity is as difficult to define as is intelligence. What it usually means is that a person can somehow devise original solutions to problems or put together facts in new or novel ways. Thus, words like innovation, originality, new, and different signify the work or thought processes of creative persons.

It is quite well proved that creativity is not simply a matter of intelligence. Exactly what it is cannot yet be said with any degree of authority, although we do know that relatively few possess this capability.

People can do a variety of things, that is, they are capable of or have the power to perform. Abilities refer to the human powers or capabilities to perform, run, jump, read, and solve problems. When we speak of abilities, we do not say anything about the source of the power or capability. The ability may have been inherited or it may have been learned or perhaps some of both.

On the other hand, a human aptitude signifies a potentiality to do something or something that is dormant within us. An aptitude, furthermore, usually refers to an ability that is not dependent on education or experience. For illustrations of many different types of abilities, see other performance objectives in this module.

To have a skill is to be able to do something. Therefore, skill can be thought of as being generally synonymous with ability. A skill, however, is something that is learned. To the psychologist skill is always related to the amount of time and effort that is required to learn a particular activity.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Attitudes and Values (1)	Devise and conduct an attitude survey of apprentices in training. What major attitudes do they hold and how do they explain such attitudes?
Personality (1)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

One should remember that the term skill is used differently when referring to job classifications. When we speak of jobs, we refer to them as skilled, unskilled, or semi-skilled. Thus, jobs are lumped together or classed into broad categories, primarily by employers when they plan their pay systems. Even a worker who is classified as an unskilled worker must, in many instances, be able to perform a certain operation that requires a large amount of dexterity and concentration, something that requires hours and hours of practice before it is done correctly. Clearly, we can say with reference to that operation that this person is skilled.

An attitude is our general mental orientation to things, situations, and facts. It is a frame of reference which influences our specific view of things and situations at any given moment in time. Even more simply, it is our preference or judgment about something, somebody, or some condition.

There are several similar words, all of which imply a person's preference or judgment. They can be put on a scale which measures the depth or intensity of the preference. Thus, an opinion is usually in reference to something topical and not of long standing importance. For example, the XYZ baseball team is superior to ABC. We usually express attitudes about more important things; for example, we express attitudes or preferences about whether there should be amnesty for deserters. Values represent basic, deep-seated preferences or judgments; for example, the following are said to be American values: equality of opportunity, freedom from restraint, respect for private property, free enterprise, economic system, political democracy, justice and due process, freedom of speech and assembly, and individualism.

As used by psychologists, personality has a meaning which is a little different from its common usage. It refers to the sum total of a person's abilities, characteristics, and interests, but these abilities, traits, and interests are unrelated to one another. Even as used by psychologists, the term is somewhat amorphous, perhaps too broad to be of real value.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Interests (1)		This term refers to what persons would like to do or want to be in contrast to what they are able to do. It is particularly important in the world of work because our interests do not always coincide with our abilities. A person may be an excellent electrician, but have little interest in the work because he is really interested in political work or the reverse as when a person may have a high degree of interest in electrical work, but have little or no ability to perform such work.
Performance (1)		Performance refers to what an individual actually does in a given job or situation. Human performance can be said to be the product of a person's ability multiplied by his interest or willingness or motivation to perform. Ability x Motivation = Performance
Major Areas of Human Differences • Mental Abilities (2)	Invite a representative from the local employment service to administer a battery of tests and then explain the how and why of such tests to the students.	Practically all of the first performance objective was devoted to mental abilities, which include intelligence, creativity, and aptitudes. Our mental abilities are both inherited through our genes and learned by us in a variety of environments.
Muscular-motor Abilities (2)		Muscular-motor abilities are quite unrelated to our mental functions. Motor functions of our bodies refer to the manipulations and movements we can make with our muscles and physical structure. Evidence abounds all around us that some persons can do things with their hands and feet, which other persons will never be able to do. Consider the acrobat, the juggler, the athlete, the pool "shark" or a thousand and one others.
Personality and Interests (2)		When we speak of personality we often speak of human traits such as outlook on life, emotionality, stability, maturity, persistence, stubbornness, amiability, cooperativeness, and the like. A person's mood and temperament, even mental health, also are associated with personality. Interests, on the other hand, are quite specifically related to occupations and careers. Thus, we speak of being interested in working with one's hands or with abstract ideas.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Physical-biological Factors (2)		Physical-biological factors are most readily observable to anyone who has use of the human senses. There are the obvious male-female differences; differences in bodily structure, distinctions in the efficiency of our sight, sense of smell, touch, balance, and the like. Of course, the physical-biological differences are readily observed at various stages of human growth, from childhood to adulthood.
Methods of Measuring Human Differences		
• Psychological Traits (3)		These are usually paper and pencil exercises which are used to measure a person's aptitudes and proficiencies. A person's score on the test (if the test is properly constructed) is supposed to indicate or to measure the amount of a particular ability (or interest or aptitude). There are four major categories of psychological tests, including: • Intelligence tests — measures a person's ability to profit from past experience, to learn, and to think • Aptitude tests — measures potential, as, for example, mathematics, art, or mechanical aptitude • Interest tests — measures a person's occupational or vocational preferences, for example, interests such as scientific, service and social welfare. • Personality tests — measures temperament, emotionality, and mental health (Many of these, as for example, the Rorschach Ink Blot Test, were designed for clinical purposes to determine who was "abnormal" or "deviant.")
• Achievement or Performance Tests (3)		These tests are exactly what the words imply — a procedure during which a person must demonstrate whether or not he can perform. For example, a person who claims to be able to weld stainless steel is tested by performing with real equipment on real materials and with real time conditions.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• Dexterity Tests (3)	
• Body Physique Measures (3)	
• Correlation Coefficients (3)	
Ways People Differ	
• Mental Abilities and Aptitudes (4)	
• Work and Life Experiences (4)	
• Physique, Health, and Stamina (4)	
• Motivation (4)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

These tests are devices which measure a person's motor coordination and speed, for example, placing pegs in holes on a peg board to test for finger dexterity.

These tests and measurements are performed by medical doctors and related professionals to measure body physique.

Individual differences are often measured by comparing or correlating one measure against another. Thus, for example, employers compare scores made on an aptitude test or intelligence test with proficiency scores or judgments made about a worker's actual performance. If the highly proficient workers score high on a particular aptitude or psychological test there is said to be high positive correlation between the two scores.

When we measure large numbers of people, we find that the distribution of the particular characteristics or ability, for example, intelligence, that we are measuring is scattered or distributed in a normal distribution curve. Normal distribution refers to a bell-shaped curve where 50 percent of the tested score is in the middle range, 25 percent below and 25 percent above. Of course, there can be and are many variations in distribution in that both the height and spread of the curve may vary.

Obviously, we all acquire all kinds of experiences by simply going through life; and these differ around the world.

Consider how people differ according to age, sex, size, and condition.

Motivation, that is, why people behave as they do, is so important that it is treated elsewhere in this training sequence. However, emphasize at this point that there is a wide and bewildering array of human needs or motives. We are all pushed and/or pulled by many desires and forces. We all have our basic physical needs and many others as well. We are continually happy or unhappy, satisfied or dissatisfied, frustrated or secure.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Summary		There is no question about it — people certainly are different.
Ways People Are Alike	Develop with students other specific illustrations of the similarities of and differences among people in order to test and perhaps prove the hypothesis that people are really more alike than they are different.	
• Biological Equipment (5)		That there are differences is well known, but we are more similar than different in that we all have essentially the same human machinery, for example, eyes, ears, and mouths.
• The Idea That Behavior Is Caused and Understandable (5)		We are alike in that whatever we do is not just random action, but is caused. We start out with a genetic endowment but the environment (everything outside of us) affects what we came into this world with, the inside of us.
• Human Behavior Is Not Only Caused but Also Pointed Towards Certain Goals (5)		We all need to attain constantly all kinds of goals. At the simplest biological level, the goal may be a square meal in order to satisfy the hunger pangs. Goals are outside of us.
• Our Behavior Is Similar in That We Have Internal Needs or Wants or Drives (5)		Needs, wants, and drives are inside of us, inherited and acquired and leading or pushing our behavior (see module 5 on Motivation.)

HOW PERCEPTIONS INFLUENCE HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Identifies the importance of perceptions in human behavior and explains how our perceptions influence our behavior

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Explain what perception means*

(2) *Identify and explain the importance of perception*

(3) *Explain why there are differences in perception*

(4) *Demonstrate knowledge of the phenomenon called selective perception*

(5) *Summarize the important scientific principles relating to perception*

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Meaning of Perceptions	Discuss with students the meaning of perception. (Ref. A, Chapter 2; Ref. B, Chapter 3)
• Definition (1)	
• The World Through Our Own Pair of Glasses (1)	Show illustrations (Fig. 1) at the end of this module to the students. Tabulate and discuss responses.
• Visual Illustrations of Differences in Perception (1)	

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(A) Krech, David, Crutchfield, R.S., & Ballachey, E.L. *Individual in society*. New York, N.Y. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1962.

(B) Stagner, Ross. *The psychology of industrial conflict*. New York, N.Y. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1956. (Publication out of print, may be available through local library.)

11

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Perception refers to the evaluation and interpretation that we give to people, situations, ideas, and things. Perception refers to the way we see the world and the way we experience it.

Consider two people in any situation, for example, two workers receiving orders from a supervisor or two people shopping in a store. They react by thinking and by doing, but only in terms of how they see or perceive the situation. Worker A may feel insulted or aggrieved at the tone of voice used by the supervisor. Worker B is fearful and anxious because he does not really know how to carry out the orders.

Consider the straight line in the figures shown here. Why does B look longer than A when it is not?

(A)

(B)

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Importance of Perception • Understanding Behavior (2)	Take a sheet of paper and place a glob of ink or paint and then fold the paper through the blot to make a design. Ask participants to indicate what they visualize in the resulting design.	Consider the famous drawing of the old/young lady that is reproduced on the last page of this module as it has been in thousands of psychology textbooks. How old is she? Is she pretty or ugly? Do people see her differently? (See Fig. 2) We start with the premise that people behave according to how they see or perceive. People behave not just in response to the situation, but to their definition or mental image of the situation. If we can get a glimpse of how other people see things we are well on the way to understanding their behavior.
• People Do See Things Differently (2)		We are not alike and we do see or perceive things differently. For example, what seem to be the facts for one person are interpreted differently by another. Have you ever been in an argument?
• Understanding Perception Helps Us To Understand Ourselves (2)		Just knowing that a person has a certain background and knowing something of the experiences acquired in that background helps us to deal with that person. Consider the matter of being on time for work or for appointments. Some people have learned that this is important and others have learned that it is unimportant. Knowing that may help us to review our own ideas of what is right and proper.
• Understanding Perceptions Makes It Easier To Help People To Learn and To Change (2)		Once we understand what a person sees, what filters or screens he uses, we can try to provide new experiences and new information for his consideration and use.
Differences in Perception	Show such films as "The Eye of the Beholder," or "Is It Always Right To Be Right?" to assist in presenting the concept of perception. The	There are many other factors that may influence perception. The mood a person is in, the time of day, are examples of temporary influences. Other influences on an individual's perception are discussed below.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• Our Physical Makeup (3)	above films may be rented from Audio-Visual Center, NYSSILR, Cornell U., Ithaca, N.Y. 14850.
• Experiences Over Time (3)	
• Values and Assumptions (3)	
• Needs and Wants (3)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Our physical and mental makeup do influence how we perceive, for example, the person who is color blind does not see the same beauty value in a painting that normal viewers do. Also, the very short person sees the world quite differently than a modern basketball player. It has been suggested that many short people are very aggressive because of their lack of stature.

Consider the healthy, good looking person and the opposite. Consider age.

Consider also how perceptions may affect our bodies, as when we are so fearful of something that we literally cannot move.

Our own real experiences over a period of time are more important to us than reading about them or hearing about such things from others. Our previous experiences are put together by us into a frame of reference or a screen through which we filter new experiences. This frame of reference or screen helps us to fill in a given situation or to filter out undesirable or unpleasant aspects.

The number of times we experience and the duration affect our perception. When we are unfamiliar we are hesitant, but over time, as we gain familiarity we also gain confidence.

This is related to the previous point in that we learn values as a result of our experiences. We have learned that some things are good or positive and some things are bad or negative. Our values and assumptions can block, distort, or limit our perceptions.

Our behavior is directed towards the satisfaction of our needs and wants. These needs which motivate our behavior are often unknown to us, but behavior which results in satisfaction of needs and wants will tend to be repeated.

Consider some of our needs and wants such as:

- Love
- Approval
- Domination
- Success

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- Recognition
- Status
- Respect
- Fear of Failure
- Comfort
- Security

• Concept of Self (3)

Each of us has a mental image or concept of the kind of person he is or wants to be, for example:

- Easy going or hard and tough
- Expert or novice
- Screwball or conformist
- Liberal or radical

There may be a difference in what we think we are and the reality.

How a person reacts depends, in part, on his concept of himself, that is, when I do something will it enhance my self-concept or does it threaten it? Self-concept is the product of total experience, physical-mental makeup and the situation.

• Threats (3)

A person feels threatened when faced with a situation that he cannot cope with. When persons feel they cannot cope or feel they are inadequate, they usually defend their perceptions. They also tend to become fearful and anxious.

If we are interested in helping people to change their perceptions we are well advised not to use threats, because this creates a situation where the threatened person is too defensive to even consider a new idea.

Selective Perception

• Definition (4)

Selective perception refers to certain distortions in what we see. We see what we want to see and by the same token what we may not want to see. We may magnify or diminish the situation. We remember payday but conveniently forget that we have a dentist's appointment.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• How the Process Works (4)		There seem to be some guiding rules for what we choose to take into our perception and what to exclude. These guidelines include: • Take in (see and perceive) whatever promises to help satisfy needs • Ignore things that are only slightly disturbing and treat such as background noise • Pay attention to really important things • When threatened with intense danger (as for example, to be killed in combat) deny or repress it (In other words, "It won't happen to me.")
Scientific Principles of Perception		Principles of perception may be expressed in the following terms: • We perceive things on the basis of our experience and attitudes. The skilled craftsman tends to see certain job characteristics quite differently than the new man. • We tend to see those things we want to see. People who believe all teenagers are delinquents tend to see those things which confirm that point of view. • We really cannot perceive anything completely objectively. We always filter our perceptions and our own viewpoint is involved. Even in the act of seeing or hearing, the person is both physically and psychologically involved. We automatically categorize things and events as we observe them. • We must always be ready to understand that other people will not necessarily perceive the same situation as we. Consider the grievance situation, a patient and a doctor or the taxpayer and the government employee. • We tend to make assumptions when there is insufficient information. We must make assumptions, however, too often we make them when one situation is somewhat similar to another, but yet different in many important ways.

CONTENT INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- We usually take a stance on what things should be and yet can we justify this when other people have different perceptions from ourselves?

  We need to remember that how we think the world should be may be quite different from the way others think the world should be. Keep in mind areas such as politics and religion.

- We should learn more about a person who is the subject of our judgments, at least to the extent of hearing his side of the story involved.

  Remember, his background is probably different from yours and his experiences are not your experiences.

- Perception is relative and it depends on who we are and what the situation is.

  It is important to understand that we all have these limits to our ability to perceive objectively. In an organization, our perceptions of people and events are biased by our own attitudes and concerns. In a cooperative organization people should break down these limits by trying to understand the viewpoints of others.

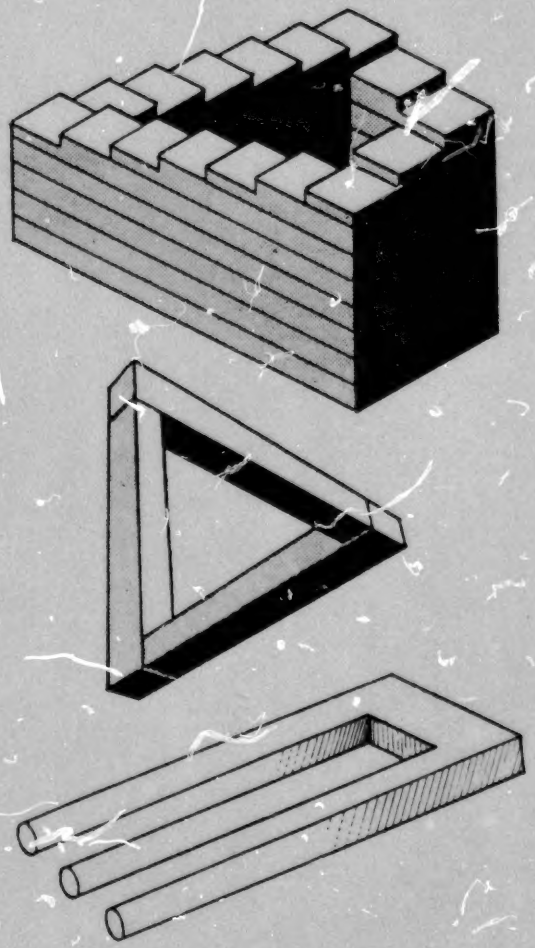

Figure 1

Figure 2

WHY PEOPLE BEHAVE THE WAY THEY DO ON THE JOB

Explains why people behave as they do within the employment context

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Explain what is meant by the term human relations*

(2) *Determine why it is important to study and have knowledge of human relations*

(3) *Summarize what is required by a person who has real skill and understanding of human relations*

(4) *Explain key concepts used in describing human behavior*

(5) *Explain the scientific assumptions and principles of human behavior*

(6) *Distinguish how behavior is altered or influenced*

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(A) Gellerman, S.W. *The management of human relations.* New York, N.Y. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc. 1966.

(B) Maier, N.R.F. *Psychology in industrial organizations;* 4th. ed. New York, N.Y. Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1973.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Human Relations • Definition (1)	Discuss with the students whether the following or similar ideas are myth or are valid: • People are lazy. • People like to work. • People love to fight. • People want to cooperate. • People are inherently good. • People are inherently evil.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Human relations has been defined in a number of ways. For some it implies a moral quality in the sense that people should be good to one another. "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" (The Golden Rule), is frequently cited as a good way to live and work.

As used here, human relations is simply a broad term for describing how people feel and deal with one another at the work place. To understand human relations, one must have a good grasp of a number of concepts such as motivation of workers, individual differences and similarities, leadership, small [illegible] and organizations, satisfactions and dissatisfactions [illegible], conflict-cooperation, perceptions, and even aspects of mental [illegible]lth. In addition, the term human relations should be thought of as a catchall term which includes individual behavior and also group and power relations,

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
	• People cannot do anything about their lot. • People are competitive. • People are preprogrammed. • People must be tightly supervised and controlled. (Ref. A; Ref. B)	that is, relationships stemming from the fact that work is usually performed in formal organizations where some persons are managers with certain powers and where other persons are employees with more limited powers.
• Can Human Relations Be Learned? (1)		The answer is a very positive yes. Human relations represents areas of knowledge that can be studied, understood, and put to use. From the cave man to the present, men have been studying one another. Much of this was just plain superstition and myth, but more and more we are acquiring scientific knowledge. Scientific knowledge by definition is such that it can be verified by other people which eventually leads to real understanding.
Importance of Human Relations • From an Employee's Viewpoint (2) • From an Employer's Viewpoint (2)	Discuss with students how unions view the so-called human relations movement	A study of human relations will illustrate how jobs are created in organizations and how organizations operate. Perhaps more important, such studies will help employees understand their supervisors and managers. And most important of all, human relations will help all persons to understand themselves. Only by understanding ourselves and others can we be effective in dealing with people. Employers have been responsible for much of the interest in human relations, and for good reasons. All employers rely on people to a considerable degree to do the required work and thus to achieve organizational objectives. When employers are absent, quit, or go on strike, employers are vitally interested to know why. All employers would like to know how to motivate employees to be more productive.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Skills Required To Understand Human Relations		
• Knowledge of Himself (3)		Skill in human relations starts with knowledge of oneself, of one's motivation, perceptions, and biases.
• Knowledge of Individual Differences (3)		It is vital to understand the other person and his viewpoint. With knowledge of individual differences may come sympathy and understanding.
• Knowledge of Group Structures and Processes (3)		Since much of the work in business and industry is performed in groups, it is particularly important to understand group dynamics, for example, leadership in small groups and member behavior.
• Knowledge of Organizational Structure and Behavior (3)		We are concerned with behavior at the work place, which means that we must be concerned with authority, power, hierarchy, and how employers and managers behave and why.
Description of Human Behavior		
• Biological Factors:		Man is an animal, but man is also different from all the other animals.
Genetics Inheritance Instincts (4)		All of us are the products of two forces or factors: first we inherit through our genes (genetics) our general biological nature and our particular physical size and shape, and secondly, we are what we are because we learn and are shaped by our experiences. Instincts or instinctive behavior refers to built-in or automatic behavior such as the way an animal feeds its young. Human behavior is determined less by instinct and more by learning over time.
• Learning, Development, and Socialization (4)		All of these terms relate to the fact that people are different from animals because they learn, use language for communication, and because our memories permit us to store and to accumulate knowledge. With this learning capacity man has been able to accomplish truly wondrous and sometimes horrible things. Development is simply a form of changing and learning, while socialization refers to the process by which a family or society trains or changes individual behavior.

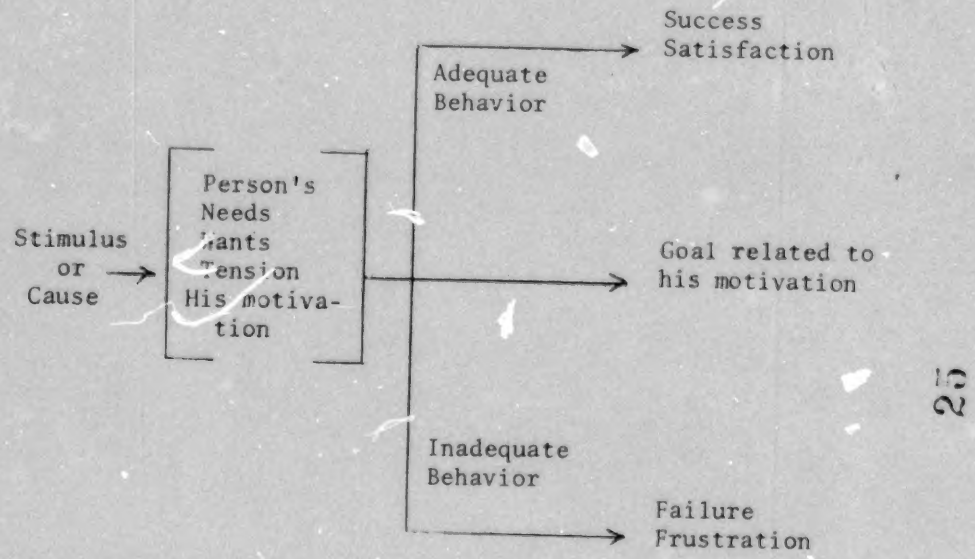
CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Perception (4)		In a simplified way, perception means we see and experience things differently, dependent on all of the things we have experienced and learned in our lifetime. Thus, the reason that people act differently even when the situation is the same is that people see the same situation differently.
• Habits		Habits refers to a connection between something (a stimulus) and a response that is quite automatic. The habitual or automatic response we make has been learned by us (or we have been conditioned). Thus, a green light tells us to step on the gas and a red light gets us to apply the brake.
Assumptions and Principles of Human Behavior • Causation in Behavior (5)	Carry out the group problem-solving exercise that is described in Reference B, The Case of the Sewing Machine Operators.	Human behavior is caused. Behavior is not random or meaningless. There is always a reason behind the behavior, even though the person who is doing something (behaving) may be unaware of the reason. A good psychologist (and for that matter, all intelligent adults) does not judge or blame people, instead, he seeks to find out what were the needs of the person and how did he view the situation.
• Needs Towards Which Behavior Is Directed (5)		When we believe (act or do things) we try to fill a variety of needs or wants. Above all, we seek to stay alive. The so-called instinct for self-preservation is basic. Beyond basic physical and survival needs, all of us seek to protect or enhance ourselves. People want various things which influence them to behave as they do. At the extreme, people may even destroy themselves in an effort to satisfy their needs.
• Schematic Models of Behavior (5)		The formula, Stimulus→ Person→ Behavior→ Results, suggests that a stimulus (something outside of us) acts upon us or prompts us (the person) to do something (behavior) and there are consequences (results). Thus, if we touch a finger to a red hot stone (stimulus) we remove the finger (behavior) with the result that we get away from the stone.

2.1

CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

BACKGROUND IFNORMATION



How Behavior Is Altered

- Change the Situation (6)

If we are interested in saving electricity, we can ask people to conserve and to turn out the lights when they are not being used. Another way is to change the situation; for example, remove some of the light bulbs. Which is better?

If we are interested in reducing the number of highway fatalities, which is more effective, to educate people to be defensive drivers or to impose a top speed limit of 55 miles per hour?

- Change the Person (6)

When we educate or train someone, we effectively change that person. Changing a person is relatively more difficult than changing the situation or stimulus. In some cases, however, it may be possible to remove (transfer) a person.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• Try to Understand His Perception (6)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

To understand behavior and to try to influence it, we must attempt to understand a person's needs and to see the situation from his viewpoint. People are different and they are complex. There are no easy short cuts to understanding human behavior, but as a starter we must put aside our perceptions and seek to appreciate those of the other person considering the following:

- How does the other person see himself?
- How does he see the situation?
- What needs are paramount?

HOW TO LIVE WITH EVERYDAY FRUSTRATIONS

Explains human behavior at those times and in those circumstances where people are unable to satisfy their important needs and where they become frustrated and "blow their stacks" or "lose their cool"

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Describe several situations where people are in a state of intense motivation*

(2) *Picture in schematic form what happens when we are unable to satisfy our needs or when we are blocked*

(3) *Identify the causes of intense motivation and frustrated behavior*

(4) *Explain how people cope with frustrations and conflicts when goals are blocked*

(5) *Explain what, if anything, can be done about frustration-conflict in ourselves and in others*

REFERENCES

(A) Maier, N.R.F. *Psychology in industrial organizations*, 4th. ed. New York, N.Y. Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1973.

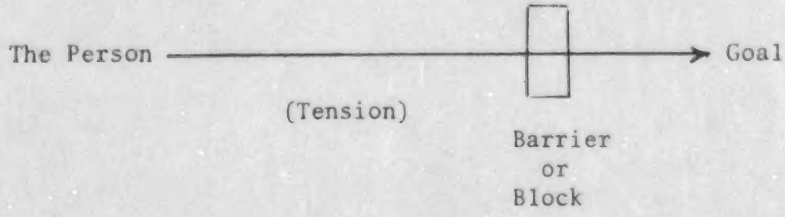
(B) Rosen, Ned. *Supervision: a behavioral view.* Columbus, Ohio. Frid, Inc. 1973.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Intense Motivation • Definition (1) • Visible Signs of Intense Motivation (1)	*Caution is advised with this module because intense behavior is difficult to identify. Also, it is very important to recognize when such behavior is so abnormal that therapy is required. Assistance with this module may be obtained from a qualified counselor or doctor or someone from the local mental health association.*

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Intense motivation refers to the very strong need to do something by persons in circumstances where some or all of their human needs (physiological, safety, belonging, esteem, self-fulfillment) go unsatisfied.

When some or all of our human needs are unsatisfied (for example, when our personal safety is threatened by a mugger or when we continue to make silly mistakes when we know better) we tend to become intense and emotional. We concentrate our attention on the barrier, the cause of our unmet needs, and we may get angry, we may strike out (kick or punch the object), we may use out of the ordinary language, or we may retreat or run away from the situation.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
	Use exercises that are given in Reference A to illustrate the concepts in this module. (Ref. A, Chapter 4, Ref. B, Chapter 5)	A person's intense motivation may be visible in that he may have a wild-eyed look, his face may be quite red or ashen white, his palms may be sweaty, and he may talk extra loud or go suddenly quiet.
• Emotions and Feelings (1)		Emotions and feelings refer to our likes and dislikes, to our loves and hates, and to our satisfactions and annoyances. Emotions and feelings are said to be "gut behavior" in that these likes and dislikes, these angers and fears do literally affect our stomachs and our total bodily mechanisms. Adrenalin flows, oxygen is sent to particular muscles, and our bodies get ready to deal with what we have decided is an extra special problem or crisis. When our bodies mobilize resources to deal with these presumed emergencies or crises, we find, many times, that instead of being calm and logical we are tense (emotional) and anything but calm.
Actions Relating To Blocked or Unsatisfied Needs • Problem Solving or Emotional Behavior (2)	Assign students to work in pairs and to illustrate with live incidents and cases how people seem to behave according to the schematic figures.	Normal problem solving behavior according to N. Maier is "characterized by variability in thought and action." He means that when we are faced with a problem we study it, we think of the cause and effect, and we may detour it. Thus, if our automobile does not start we do not kick it; we go systematically through the major systems to see what may be blocking the engine from firing. We check the ignition and electrical; the fuel distribution; and we may check the compression-exhaust. When the problem is not solved we acquire tension (emotion-feeling) and we may engage in distorted behavior which does not solve the problem.
• Normal Adaptive and Problem Solving Behaviors (2)		The following diagram shows success and the reduction of tensions: 

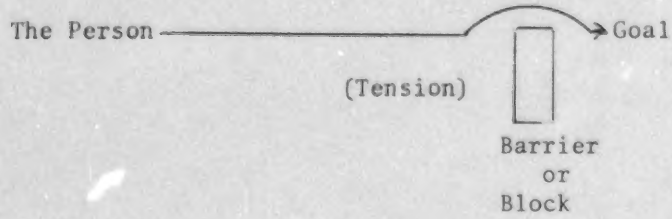
CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

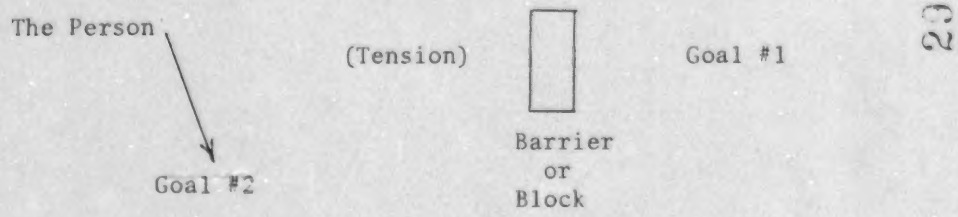
- Distorted or Frustrated Behavior (2)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

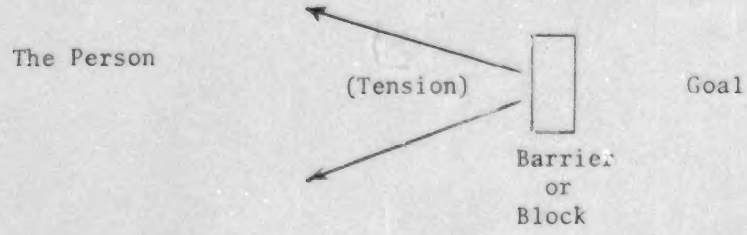
The following diagram shows a successful resolution of a problem and the reduction of tension by going around the barrier or block.



The following diagram shows that sometimes a person may decide that the original goal cannot be achieved and he settles for another. For example, the person who cannot get a promotion and prestige in his job may decide to run for union office instead.



The following diagram indicates that a person could not achieve his goal. No success means no reduction of tension which means frustration and at the extreme maybe even a breakdown of the person.



CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Causes of Frustrated Behavior		The above schematic figures indicate that much if not most of our distorted-frustrated-intense behavior is due to factors in the situation. We are asked to do something under a deadline, we may not know how to do something, we may experience several failures and we "blow up."
• Inherent (instinctual) or Environmental (3)		Some people think that we get emotional and fight because it is our nature to do so, like the animal protecting its territory or fighting for supremacy of the herd. Modern psychologists tend to dismiss this instinctual kind of explanation.
• Frustration and Conflict (3)		Frustration and conflict are interrelated. Frustration refers to our inability to satisfy a need (and to achieve our goal) because there is some kind of a barrier. Conflict, however, represents a situation where there is a choice to be made between needs that are incompatible.
		For example, we are frustrated when our needs are thwarted, when we want things we cannot have, when we seek goals we cannot reach. Somehow there is always a barrier, something intervenes. We rush out to get into our automobile in order to get to the movie theater before the first show starts and we find a flat tire.
• Barriers That Frustrate Us (3)		Sometimes the barriers are physical objects as in the case of the automobile. At other times, we can be frustrated by people, as for example, when two people want two different TV programs and there is only one TV set in the house. Sometimes we are frustrated by our own limitations and deficiencies, for example, the baseball player who strives mightily to hit a home run, but cannot even get a hit, time after time.
• Unhappy Associations (3)		Sometimes our fears and emotions can be traced back to one or two unhappy experiences. From then on we begin to generalize about the experience. For example, on two occasions when we did not get the particular job we had hopes for, it happened that we were wearing a green tie. From then we dislike the color green. A silly example, to be sure, but illustrative of how our behavior develops.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Ways of Coping with Frustrations	Ask students to illustrate by specific examples persons using the defensive behavioral mechanisms.	
• Various Reactions to Pressure (4)		Some people seem to have short fuses and blow up quite easily while others seem to be able to take a lot of pressure. Also, some people seem to run into more barriers than others. Generally, there are three types of responses, which are aggression, regression and fixation.
• Release of Tension (4)		Since we always generate tension (pressure), especially when our needs are blocked, it follows that this pressure must be released. Sometimes we recognize that our needs cannot be satisfied and we put them aside. Other times we take care of our tension (pressure) by using a defense mechanism of the type listed here or in effect, we camouflage our behavior.
• Aggression (4)		Aggression is very simply an attack. Because we cannot achieve our goal we strike out and attack. It could be the automobile (we may slam it), it could be a person (we may abuse a person verbally or actually punch him in the teeth). When we cannot hit the actual barrier which is frustrating us, we are likely to find a substitute or a scapegoat so we pick on somebody else or maybe even our dog at that point.
• Regression (4)		Instead of striking out we may return (regress) to childish behavior. We may weep, withhold information, or even put on an emotional tantrum. For example, the frustrated supervisor pounds on his desk instead of solving his problem in some logical way. In general, regression means to go backward, to do something that was successful at an earlier age, like crying, or whining or other immature behavior.
• Fixation (4)		Fixation is behavior which is repeated despite the fact that the behavior does not really cope with the problem that a person is facing. It is usually described as fixed or compulsive. Stubbornly doing the same thing even when it does not seem to solve anything is an example of fixation.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Running Away (4)		Often the response to a barrier is simply to leave the field of battle, to withdraw, to run away either physically or psychologically.
• Other Defense Mechanisms (4)		The mechanisms listed above are the major types but it is emphasized that there are countless variations on how we react to frustration-conflict. Here are a few other illustrations: • Showing off (getting attention) • Rationalization (making excuses) • Compensation (substitution) • Fantasy (dreaming) • Identification (my pop can lick yours) • Projection (deny it-attribute it to others) • Negativism (oppose it-thwart it)
Ways of Combating Frustrations		
• Accepting the Other Person's Viewpoint (5)		Ridiculing someone because they are short, or because they believe strongly in religion and we do not, or because they are hard workers who save their money and we do not, are examples of doing things that could frustrate someone. We need to do our part by accepting the fact that people really are different.
• Recognizing Signs and Symptoms of Unusual or Disturbed Behavior (5)		Without trying to become an amateur psychiatrist, there are some signs that trouble may be brewing. If a person is very restless, cannot concentrate, cannot sleep, is overly excited or overly quiet, it may well be that some frustration-conflict has occurred. When the quiet person becomes noisy or when people are being avoided are other illustrations. But the chances are that we, as observers or coworkers, cannot do much about correcting the situation, that is, helping the person who is frustrated to achieve his or her goals.
• Listening to People and Letting Them Blow Off Steam (5)		Sometimes it helps merely to listen to a person who is frustrated. The listening permits the person to put the problem into a slightly different framework or if nothing else to release some tension. Once in a while, it is a good idea to let people let off steam by kicking a football instead of a person, or by screaming at the opposing team at a football game.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Checking Yourself Against a Standard (5)		The following may be used from time to time as a checklist: • Are you reasonably happy and satisfied? • How is your health? Do you have more than your share of complaints? • How long is your fuse? • Do you argue a lot? • Do you feel that people like you? • Do you look for excuses? • Can you take constructive criticism? • How good a problem solver are you?

UNIT 3

MODULE 5

WHAT MOTIVATES PEOPLE TO WORK

Identifies the internal human forces or motives that relate to people at work and examines modern scientific generalizations about the process and explains how supervisors use motivational principles to get people to work productively

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Distinguish and define terminology associated with motivation*

(2) *Classify motives of people at work*

(3) *Identify some of the major principles, concepts, and theories of motivation*

(4) *Explain the general theory of motivation developed by A. Maslow*

REFERENCES

(A) Berelson, Bernard, & Steiner, G.A. *Human behavior: an inventory of scientific findings.* New York, N.Y. Harcourt, Brace,and Jovanovich, 1967.

(B) Maslow, A.H. *Motivation and personality;* 3d. ed. New York, N.Y. Harper and Row, Publishers. 1970.

(C) Rosen, Ned. *Supervision: a behavioral view.* Columbus, Ohio. Grid, Inc. 1973.

31

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Terminology Relating to Motivation	Illustrate the importance of motives and motivation by citing the example of policemen and detectives who are constantly looking for motives.
• Motivation (1)	Ask students to describe their favorite TV or movie "Whodunit" in motivational terms.
• Motive (1)	Define and explain terminology associated with motivation. (Ref. A; Ref. C, Chapter 2)
• Incentives or Goals (1)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

There are internal forces within people that push or pull them to act or to behave. Motivation generally refers to our inner strivings that are called needs, wants, drives, desires, wishes, and impulses.

A motive is something within us that pushes or pulls and channels our behavior towards a goal.

Incentives or goals are generally outside the person and more tangible (even visible sometimes) than motives. An incentive could be money or recognition (things which we can measure) and from these we try to infer motives. For example, we infer motives for an individual who considers take-home pay more important than retirement benefits.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• Physiological or Primary Motives (1)	
• Secondary or Learned Motives (1)	
Why People Work • What People Want From Their Jobs (2)	Discuss with students the motivations that cause people to work. Ask each student to rank the job factors in the order that he thinks appropriate and to indicate why each factor was so rated.
• Other Factors (2)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Physiological or biological motives are those that force us to keep our bodily mechanisms operating, such as food, water and oxygen, and elimination of wastes. Related primary motives are those relating to the reproduction of the human species.

While there are relatively few biological needs, there is almost an infinite number of needs that we learn in the course of our lifetime. We learn (acquire) new goals and new motives almost constantly, for example, that people are acquisitive, loving, hating, recognizing, stimulating, and dominating.

Without attempting to indicate which is more important to any person, the following are some of the motivations of people at work:

- Meaningful work
- Security
- Opportunity for advancement
- Recognition
- Competent leadership
- Good pay
- Freedom from arbitrary action
- Chance to participate in decision-making
- Congenial working associates
- Safe and pleasant working conditions
- Knowledge of where one stands
- Approval
- Variety
- Being treated with dignity

As pointed out by Ned Rosen, it is difficult to answer the question why people work because:

- Different people may be working to satisfy different needs
- The same person may be working to satisfy different needs at different times
- Different people who have the same need may be working toward different specific goals, all of which can satisfy that need
- Different people working toward the same goal may be seeking to satsify different needs

Also, the answer must include why working was chosen as the pathway between need and goal rather than some other pathway.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Principles, Concepts, and Theories of Motivation		
• Motives — Internal Energizing Forces (3)		Motvies are mainsprings and they answer the question why we do things. Motives arouse and maintain activity.
• Motives Lead To Many Different Incentives or Goals (3)		A desire for prestige may lead to many things such as buying a sports car, growing a beautiful beard, or running for a political office.
• Motives May Act Together (3)		Our desires may be harmonized or they may be in conflict. On the one hand, we are interested in achieving economic security by getting up and going to work on Monday morning, but on the other hand, we are attracted to getting another hour of sleep.
• Power of a Particular Motivation Is a Function of Several Things (3)		How we behave, and whether we behave relates to the following: • Strength of the motive (intensity) • Individual's estimate of the probability that the behavior will relate to his goal • Value of the incentive or reward
• Most Motives Are Learned (acquired after birth) (3)		Our bodies, for example, do not need alcohol, but millions of people all over the world have learned to want to drink it.
• Motives May Be Hidden and Hard To Determine (3)		This is particularly true of motives that are socially unacceptable or motives acquired as a result of reacting to stress. Freudian psychology is usually associated with our deep-seated and usually unconscious motives.
• Many Theories of Motivation (3)		Many researchers and others have tried to develop valid theories of human motivation. While most subscribe to the summary principles listed here, there is as yet no definitive theory of motivation.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		On one hand, we note psychiatric theories (Freud et al.), and on the other hand, we note various psychologists such as Vroom, Maslow, and others.
Maslow's Theory of Motivation	Discuss the main ideas of motivation as suggested by Abraham Maslow (Ref. B)	Maslow indicates that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy. When lower order (in the hierarchy) needs are satisfied, a person acquires other needs at a higher level. The hierarchy of needs includes: • Physiological or survival (low) • Safety • Social • Ego (esteem) • Self-fulfillment or (self-actualization (high)
• Physiological or Survival Needs (4)	Show how to analyze and construct a "Motivational Analysis"of a situation. Use the following as an example and determine the motivational factors at work when a worker who has wanted a promotion has been passed over again. Positive Motivational Factors • Continued economic need • Pride in past accomplishments • Fear of dismissal	Man lives for bread alone—when there is no bread. Other needs, such as status, recognition, affection do not operate when his stomach is empty. Many people in many of the developing countries do not care about which political system will provide them with more freedom as a citizen because of the day-to-day problem they face in dealing with starvation. These needs or wants such as food, shelter, protection from the elements are the lowest level of needs that man has. They are basically physiological needs. If these needs are not satisfied, then people are motivated to satisfy them. However, once the need is satisfied, it will not motivate any new behavior on the individual's part. As an example, consider your own need for air; except as you are deprived of it, it has no appreciable motivating effect upon your behavior. Within the job structure in our society, the pay check is the primary satisfier of these physiological needs.
• Safety Needs (4)	Negative Motivational Factors • Feeling of bitterness • Loss of esteem • Apathy	When a person's physiological needs are satisfied, needs or wants at some higher level begin to become extremely important, that is, to dominate his thinking and subsequently his behavior. This second level of needs is called safety needs. These are needs for protection against danger, threat, or being deprived of something. In one sense, these needs are of a security nature. People do not demand absolute security, yet because they are dependent in many respects on others, they feel the need for protection against any independent or arbitrary decision which would deprive or take

something away from them. In a sense, these are needs for guarantees. In our society there are many ways in which needs for safety or guarantees are expressed, for example, people sign contracts for jobs and unions demand certain guarantees in regard to the job security of their members. In their private lives, people are protected and guaranteed against arbitrary acts against them by many laws. The current civil-rights movement indicates, to some degree, a desire to fulfill safety needs, that is, an attempt to secure protection against arbitrary discrimination.

The basic concern of people at this level is for the "fairest possible break." When a person in a dependent relationship does not fear arbitrary deprivation he does not demand security but feels relatively certain that he will be treated fairly. Under these circumstances he does not have a need for more or greater security. In effect, the need for safety does not motivate him to perform new behavior. He may, however, be able to perform new behavior. He may, however, be able to perform new tasks because of this relatively safe environment.

Employment is a dependent relationship. Therefore, in any employment situation, the possibility exists that some arbitrary management action might result in the employee being deprived of certain rights, benefits, or possibly his job. In this sense, certain employment guarantees become extremely important in the motivation of the employees. In fact, safety needs expressed by employees have been a primary factor in companies developing systems of job security and fringe benefit programs such as pensions, hospital-medical coverage, and disability insurance.

- Social Needs (4)

Another level of needs is that of social needs. If a person's physical needs have been satisfied and he is fairly confident that he has adequate guarantees that they will continue, then social needs, such as affection, friendship, giving and receiving fellowship, and group identification become important motivators of his behavior. These needs derive from the fact that man is a social animal. No matter how much we may like to think of ourselves as individuals, we are dependent upon other people in many ways. Men need friends;

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		they marry and raise families. At work they tend to identify themselves with one group or another within many groups. To be part of a team or "one of the boys" is extremely important. Social needs often take the form of a desire for togetherness.
• Ego or Esteem Needs (4)		At the next level, individuals are concerned with esteem or ego needs. These refer to the desire of people to be able to distinguish themselves as individuals. There are different classes of needs within this level. For discussion purposes, let us identify self-esteem and reputation. Those needs which people have for self-esteem are needs for self-confidence, independence, competence, and knowledge. The second category,which primarily relates to one's reputation, are those needs we have for status, for recognition, for appreciation, and for the respect of one's fellows. Unlike many of the lower needs these are rarely satisfied. Once a person reaches the point where these are important, he continually seeks for satisfaction of more and more of these needs. He has a desire to increase his competence or self-confidence. He also may desire more and more recognition and more and more prestige.
• Self-Fulfillment Needs (4)		Finally, the highest level in this hierarchy or organization can be called self-fulfillment needs. These are difficult to define, but basically they are the needs of people to fulfill their potentialities and to make good use of their abilities and skills. They are needs for realizing one's own capabilities, for continued self-development and for being creative. Most of us have an idea of the sort of person we would like to be, the sort of achievements we would like to accomplish, and how we would ideally like to fit into the world. The needs to meet these ideal self-concepts in various areas are our needs for self-fulfillment.
• The Order of Needs (4)		The idea of a hierarchy implies that the low order needs have a priority over the higher, that is, we must have air to breathe to live. The meaning of this hierarchy is that a person is most conscious of the lowest order need that is unsatisfied, and so that need becomes his most important want; his motivation to satisfy it is then stronger than his motivation for other needs higher up the hierarchy. To illustrate this concept, consider a man who has a steady job that pays well (physiological and safety needs are then

likely to be satisfied adequately) and he has a family and good friends (social needs are then likely to be satisfied). The theory presented here that says that he will be most conscious of the need for esteem, which is then his major want. In other words, satisfied needs do not motivate any new activity, and the need most important in motivating new behavior is the lowest order unsatisfied need.

As far as the satisfied needs are concerned, although they generate no new behavior, they are important for the following reasons.

- If a person has satisfied a certain need, he must have engaged (in the past) in certain activities which led to its satisfaction and thus was rewarded for his activities. He will then have a tendency to continue these activities whenever that need arises again. For example, a man who has insured his property in the past, has fulfilled a safety need, therefore, he is likely to continue to do this in the present.
- A person may form a habit that originated as a means of satisfying a particular need, and maintain the habit when the need no longer exists. For example, a man may continue to observe safety rules which were applied to an old piece of machinery when they are no longer necessary with its new replacement.

It must be stressed that Maslow's scheme is an oversimplification. It is true that men have needs, but an individual act is usually compounded of many factors. The need hierarchy is to be regarded as a starting basis from which to work, and not as the final solution to all of human motivation.

ADJUSTING TO WORK

Explains why some workers make successful adjustments to their jobs and organizations while others are inadequate or unsuccessful under the pressure of work

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *List the standards or criteria that are used in business and industry concerning successful and unsuccessful performance*

(2) *Identify the personal factors leading to unsuccessful performance and adjustment*

(3) *Identify work-related tensions, pressures, and problems that may lead to unsuccessful performance*

(4) *Distinguish the signs and symptoms that a worker is not adjusting properly and may be becoming ineffective*

(5) *Explain successful adjustment to work pressures and problems*

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(B) Miner, J.B. *The management of ineffective performance.* New York, N.Y. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1963. (Publication out of print, may be available through local library.)

(C) Rosen, Ned. *Supervision: a behavioral view.* Columbus, Ohio. Grid Inc. 1973.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Standards Indicating Successful Performance	Discuss with students standards that indicate a worker is performing successfully. (Ref. B, Chapter 1)	
• Quality of Work Performed (1)	Invite a representative from the personnel industrial relations department of a local firm to explain how his company judges individual performance of a skilled worker, supervisor, and middle-level managers.	All employers in all industries use the quality of a person's work as one measure of success or effectiveness. Only a certain number of errors or mistakes are permitted, or more positively, a certain degree of accuracy (good, proper, appropriate) is expected.
• Quantity of Work Performed (1)		Not only must the job be done correctly (quality) but all workers are expected to produce specified amounts (quantities). Not only must the baseball player be able to get a hit, he must over a season

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		bat over 300 if he is to be called a truly successful player. To take another occupational example, an employer would be quite unhappy with the carpenter who needed eight hours to hang one ordinary kitchen screen door.
• Reasonable Attendance (minimum absenteeism) and Minimum Lateness (1)		Workers are characterized as unsuccessful or inadequate if they take too much time off or are consistently late for work. Even if the reasons for tardiness or absenteeism are proper, the employer may still feel the person's performance is inadequate in that other (and costly) arrangements have to be made. If workers are frequently late or absent without good reason, they are certain to be labelled ineffective by their employer.
• Willing Commitment, Cooperation and Some Creativity (1)		In addition to the above criteria, employers expect their workers to give something over and above the first three criteria which might be called the minimum. A certain amount of dedication and cooperation is expected in order that organizational goals are achieved.
Personal Factors Indicating Unsuccessful Performance	Discuss with students some factors that indicate a worker is performing unsuccessfully (Ref. B, Chapter 2-5)	Although obvious, it is important to reemphasize that there are individual differences among people. Jobs, in turn, require various types and degrees of muscular skill and coordination. If the worker does not have the necessary muscular skills, it can lead to unsuccessful performance. Consider the following physical characteristics and various jobs:
• Physical Limitations and Handicaps (2)		• Size — deliveryman for draft beer, blacksmith • Running ability — professional athlete • Muscle coordination — juggler • Hearing — musician Physical limitations exist because we are born with various abilities. Some people are motivated to practice and thus to acquire higher degrees of physical skill. We lose some capacity because of job conditions, for example, loss of hearing by persons who work for long periods in extremely noisy conditions, and as we age, we deteriorate.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• Mental Abilities (2)	
• Emotional Complications (2)	
• Motivations (2)	
Work-related Tensions, Pressures, and Problems	Ask students to compare the stress, tensions, and problems that were experienced by military veterans in military situations to those experienced in industrial situations (Ref. C, Chapter 5).
• Things That Bother Produce Stress (3)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Physical limitations may also occur because of psychosomatic reasons, that is, physical limitations (we may develop a headache or even worse, an ulcer) are related to a mental condition.

Some people cannot cope with their jobs for the simple reasons that their jobs require a degree of intelligence or mental skills (e.g., solving mathematics problems or analyzing legal complexities) which they just do not possess. In other cases a person may have the necessary brain power, but lack the training required for particular jobs.

Whatever the cause for emotional disturbance, such people often cannot perform satisfactorily because they lack flexibility in their behavior. They are not capable of adapting to their jobs and to the conditions of work.

All the intelligence and other skills without the will to perform may produce ineffectiveness. In the final analysis the effective persons of the world are those who have abilities and the motivation to do things.

There are many types of things that are disturbing to people, many of which occur at the place of work. Consider the following situations that may cause worry, anxiety, and stress at the workplace which may lead to unsuccessful performance:

- Economic insecurity caused by layoff or loss of job
- Dangerous working conditions
- Physical discomfort - dirty and noisy working conditions
- Restriction of movement - almost all jobs restrict workers at least a little
- Loneliness and isolation
- Rejection
- Ridicule
- Unpredictable behavior
- Uncertainty
- Ambiguity
- Conflict of goals
- Threat to life or limb

CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTINNS

- Constant Changes (3)

- Conflicts (3)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

These conditions can and do exist at the workplace and they may cause stress which, in turn, causes unsuccessful job performance.

Changes are constant in business and industry because employers have to compete, and try to be productive. To be productive means to change and try new materials, new methods, new machinery, new techniques, and new combinations. The successful organization is the one that changes with the times. Thus, it is clear, from the employer's viewpoint, changes have to be made frequently.

These employer-initiated changes produce stress and sometimes resistance on the part of employees. Workers fear and resist change because:

- Fear of losing or changing job due to introduction of new machinery, tools, or equipment
- Need of learning new skills and duties
- Need of working with different people
- Lack of information

4.1

Any time a person wants to go or is pulled in two directions at the same time, he is in a state of stress called conflict. At the extreme level, conflict situations can indeed literally drive us crazy. If, as experimenters have demonstrated, an animal is placed in a box from which it cannot escape and in which is placed a container of food, and then given an electrical shock every time it touches that food, it becomes completely frustrated (tense) by the conflict. It needs and must have food, but it also must avoid the severe pain of the electrical shock. Quite literally in this situation an animal could go mad.

Consider the following conflicts that may occur on the job:

- Threat to punish and discipline
- Contradictory supervisory orders
- Contradictory expectations from union and employer
- Competition and cooperation
- Employer work standards vs. group standards.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Signs and Symptoms Indicating Poor Adjustment • Description of a Potentially Ineffective Person (4) • Physical Disorders (4) • Evidence of Aggressive Behavior (4)	Discuss with students the signs and symptoms of a poor adjustment. (Ref. A Chapters 5-13)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Conflicts and stress may also be caused by off-the-job factors which, in turn, may cause poor job performance. These may stem from family pressures or even from commonly accepted attitudes. For example, a worker is torn if he is asked to work overtime on the weekend when he has promised his family a weekend fishing trip.

Inadequacy or potential ineffectiveness means that a person cannot cope with reality. He feels unable, unacceptable, perhaps unliked and unwanted. In an attempt to cope with the anxiety and pressure of the situation in which he finds himself he turns to various escape mechanisms such as:

- Distorts reality (rationalization)
- Compensates for reality
- Retreats from reality
- Tries to forget the reality

The reaction to stress and emotional pressure may take the form of physical disorder. The person with a "mental-emotional" problem may begin to indicate as much by a changed behavior. Any one or combination of the following may be connected to stress, although it should be emphasized, of course, that such disorders might also have their origin in physical causes:

- Stomach problems — ulcers
- Stuttering
- Excessive drinking or drug taking
- Inability to do certain things (for example, to go to a party)
- Changed speaking habits
- Changed physical appearance
- Excessive criticism — complaining

Persons under extreme stress may strike out or be aggressive in the following ways:

- Change in work habits, for example, making more errors than usual or not following instructions
- Strikes

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Other Signs and Symptoms (4)		• Increased absenteeism and/or tardiness • Slowdowns or even sabotage • Fighting with people There are, as is evident, many possible reactions to stress and strain. Faced with conflict or pressure, we react with our minds and bodies to try to adapt somehow to the situation. A safe worker may suddenly have a series of accidents. A sociable worker may suddenly begin to avoid all of his old buddies.
• Severe Reactions (4)		When there does not appear to be any way out of a dilemma and when critical needs are being affected (food, love, status) we tend to use extreme types of solutions which may be considered somewhat irrational because they do not always solve the problem or eliminate the conflict.
Successful Adjustment Patterns • Earmarks of Successful Workers (5)	Invite a representative of the local mental health society to be a guest speaker or discussant.	Studies of successful achievers (workers) in many different settings have lead to the following conclusions: • Successful persons set their own goals, they try to accomplish something and do not just drift from pillar to post • Successful persons set attainable goals or in other words, their goals are not so low as to be too easy to achieve or so high as to be impossible • Successful persons like to see the results of their work and to get feedback on their performance.
• Attitude of Balance and Perspective (5)		Successful and well-adjusted workers try to understand the situation. They try to improve things, but if things do not go as they should, they are aware that it is impossible to be perfect. Successful workers are too busy making maximum use of their abilities to waste much time in malicious gossip and griping. They do not kid themselves.
• Use Intellect To Solve Problems (5)		We have already suggested that extreme pressure and conflict may make it impossible to react in a rational problem-solving manner. These are extreme circumstances.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Act As Mature Individuals (5)		In most cases, a logical problem-solving approach is appropriate. The steps in this procedure include: • Identifying problem • Setting objectives • Obtaining necessary facts • Determining causes • Determining alternatives • Taking action Maturity may be said to be synonymous with well-adjusted-successful performances.

GROUPS: HOW THEY FORM AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THEIR MEMBERS

Explains how and why small groups evolve and the importance for all people to understand the structure and dynamics of small groups

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Specify what a group is and is not*

(2) *Explain how groups meet a common definition but also differ*

(3) *Analyze and explain why groups are formed*

(4) *Describe how groups are formed*

(5) *Explain the influence of a group on its members*

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(A) Rosen, Ned. *Supervision: a behavioral view.* Columbus, Ohio. Grid, Inc. 1973.

(B) Tannenbaum, A.S. *Social psychology of the work organization.* Belmont, Calif. Wadsworth Publishing Co. 1966. (Publication out of print, may be available through local library.)

43

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Description of Groups • Aggregates or Collections (1)	Distinguish between a collection of people and a group. (Ref. A, Chapter 5; Ref. B, Chapter 4)	Sometimes it helps to define what a thing is not. In this case a group is not simply 10 or 15 individuals who find themselves together, for example, 15 persons traveling on a bus, or 12 people who suddenly find themselves members of a jury. In other words, something more is required in order to have a group than just a small number of people who suddenly find themselves together. It is more than just the sum of the individuals in it.
• Groups	Administer the class exercise in group decision-making, "Lost on the Moon," found at the end of this module.	Since a group is more than just the sum of the people in it we can say that to be a group requires certain other conditions and characteristics. In scientific terms a group is at least two people, (there is no upper limit except that groups, by definition, are small and provide opportunity for face-to-face communications) who have joined together to achieve a mutual goal. Thus, a doctor and a patient might be considered a group. Groups are two or more people who have joined together to achieve a mutual goal; whose behavior is important to and may influence other members of the group; and whose members share common beliefs and ideas.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		A jury is likely to become a group before too long, whereas those 15 people traveling on the bus are just a collection of individuals; there is no extra, no plus, which makes them a group. A group can be thought of as a molecule, as something that contains a number of atoms, but is distinctly different from the individual atoms. Are the five carpenters who have been assigned to build the forms for the foundation of a new structure members of a group? The answer is no, not automatically or by virtue of their being assigned to the same worksite. They could become a group if they acquire mutually acceptable goals, common beliefs, and defined group roles. The carpenters could by this subtle and somewhat mysterious process become after a while a real group, something quite different from five separate carpenters.
Characteristics of Groups • Commonly Known Groups (2)	Ask each student to make a list of the groups to which he belongs and then discuss each group in terms of group dimensions.	Commonly known groups would include: • A health and welfare committee • A grievance committee • A basketball team • The automobile mechanics in Joe's garage • The science teachers in a high school • A board of directors • A congressional committee • The astronauts on a moon mission
• Differences Among Groups (2)		Research on small groups indicates that groups vary on a number of dimensions such as the following: • Strength of the group's cohesion. For example, the way members of the group feel towards one another and for the goals of the group. To put it another way, cohesiveness refers to whether the group is seen as an attractive, positive experience or not. If the group never or seldom achieves its goals,it becomes less attractive and less cohesive.

CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

- Size of group
- Characteristics of group's members
- Difficulty or ease of becoming a member. If a group is easy to enter the chances are that there is low prestige in belonging to it.
- Tasks of groups. For example, consider the differences and specialization of a professional football team versus a group on an assembly line.
- Opportunities for meetings, communications, and interactions
- Requirements for teamwork
- Work pressures such as the amount of pressure put on the group for speed and accuracy.

50

Why Groups Form

- Need to Belong (3)

- Friendship (3)

- Need for Esteem (3)

- Help in Solving Problems (3)

- Protection of Members (3)

The need to belong can be said to be fundamental in human behavior. We want to be identified with fellow human beings. It is not normal to be isolated completely from our fellows; we all crave to be with other people and to have a good (specific) relationship with others.

Particularly at work it is important to have friends and colleagues to whom we may go with our troubles, fears, and personal aspirations.

We all have a need for esteem and some status which we can often get through membership in a group. We need to be somebody and feel important.

On the job, the best way to solve many of the problems that come up is by turning to members of your group. Members of groups may not tell the outsider how to do a job, for instance, but they will help their own.

Groups can provide protection to their members against the demands and pressures from the outside world. For example, work groups sometimes establish quotas of their own so that the slowest of the group can still perform comfortably.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
• To Satisfy Human Needs That the Job Cannot (3)	
How Groups Form	
• Through the Work Process (4)	
• Informal Grouping (4)	
Influence of Group on Members	Conduct and analyze the experiment described by Tannenbaum on page 58 of Reference B.
• Conformity (5)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

One person joins a group to become a leader and to satisfy a need for esteem while another does it simply for companionship. There can be almost as many reasons for joining a group as there are individual differences among people.

When five carpenters are put on the job, when twenty machinists all work together in the same job shop, or when three persons are together as an airplane flight crew we say that the work forces people to work together. After this forced beginning, the members of the work group may decide they do have things in common and a real group begins to emerge.

Groups are frequently formed around the needs of members for friendship and for socializing. Thus, we see the formation of athletic leagues, travel clubs, card playing groups, and the like.

Probably the single most important finding about group behavior is that opinions of the members tend to become similar (to converge). Why do persons prefer long hair or short hair? Why do some people wear bell bottoms? Why do some people "streak"? The best answer, in many cases, is that a group to which we belong (or aspire to belong) says "this is what we do, or wear, or say." Once a norm is established by a group it is very hard to vary from it or do something different.

The pressure to conform influences us as members of groups. Our behavior and our likes and dislikes are determined by the group and then an interesting thing happens; we come to believe that our behavior was developed independently by ourselves. Thus, if you want to predict what a person might do, find out what group he belongs to and find out what the group likes and dislikes are.

Another important influence of groups is that a person is much more likely to be committed to a decision reached by group discussion than on one presented in a talk or lecture. Group pressure is one of the most powerful pressures there is on human behavior.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Support (5)		Groups provide powerful support to members when the members face frustration or threat. The group may offer encouragement or comfort, actual protection, or strengthen a member to meet the threat. Group support becomes very evident in wartime situations where men in combat say that one of the main forces to keep them going despite their perils and fears is a strong desire not to let their buddies down.
• Is the Impact of Groups Good or Bad? (5)		The consequences of group behavior can be both good and bad. Individual members may derive satisfaction and comfort from belonging to a group. The group, however, may develop goals which are antiorganization or antiestablishment or antichange and the results might be viewed as bad by some people.
• Summary of Group Dynamics (5)		Groups are important because they: • Exist in great abundance and help to explain much of our behavior • Will continue to exist because they are so important to us • Generate powerful forces which affect members and outsiders as well • Produce positive and negative consequences • Develop a life of their own

LOST ON A DEAD PLANET — THE MOON*

Objective: To illustrate group dynamics at work

Procedure:

1. Divide the class into groups of five by going around the room and counting off one through five.

2. Pass out the Problem, (see next page) ask each person to read it carefully, and then do what is required by working individually.

   Be sure there is no checking or discussion with other group members during this phase.

3. When all persons have completed their individual problems, each group is then asked to prepare a solution for the problem which represents the consensus of the group.

4. When all the groups are finished, distribute scoring key and ask each group to calculate its group score as well as each student his individual score.

5. Conduct a discussion around the following types of questions:

   Who had better socres — individuals or groups? Why?

   Who took longer to complete? Why?

   How did groups behave? Why?

   How do students feel about working in groups?

   What are the advantages and disadvantages of working in small groups?

* Adapted from an exercise that was originally devised by Jay Hall of the American Behavioral Science Training Laboratories, Houston, Texas.

THE PROBLEM

You are in a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Mechanical difficulties, however, have forced your ship to crashland at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. The rough landing damaged much of the equipment aboard. Since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact after landing. Your task is to rank them in terms of their importance to your crew in its attempt to reach the rendezvous point. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important, and so on through to number 15, the least important.

_____ Box of matches

_____ Food concentrate

_____ 50 feet of nylon

_____ Parachute silk

_____ Portable heating unit

_____ Two .45 calibre pistols

_____ One case dehydrated milk

_____ Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen

_____ Stellar-map (of the moon's constellation)

_____ Life raft

_____ Magnetic compass

_____ 5 gallons of water

_____ Signal flares

_____ First aid kit containing injection needles

_____ Solar-powered FM receiver transmitter

5-1

SCORING KEY

Listed below are the correct rankings for the "Lost on the Moon" items, along with the reasons for the rankings provided by the NASA's space survival unit.

(15)	Box of matches	Little or no use on the moon
(4)	Food concentrate	Supply daily food required
(6)	50 feet of nylon rope	Useful in tying injured, help in climbing
(8)	Parachute silk	Shelter against sun's rays
(13)	Portable heating unit	Useful only if party landed on dark side
(11)	Two .45 calibre pistols	Self-propulsion devices could be made from them
(12)	One case dehydrated milk	Food, mixed with water for drinking
(1)	Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen	Fills respiration requirement
(3)	Stellar map of the moon's constellation	One of the principal means of finding directions
(9)	Life raft	CO bottles for self-propulsion across chasm, etc.
(14)	Magnetic compass	Probably no magnetized poles; thus useless
(2)	5 gallons of water	Replenishes loss by sweating, etc.
(10)	Signal flares	Distress call within line of sight
(7)	First-aid kit containing injection needles	Oral pills or injection medicine valuable
(5)	Solar-powered FM receiver transmitter	Distress signal transmitter, possible communication with mother ship

ORGANIZATIONS: WHAT THEY ARE AND HOW THEY OPERATE

Explains why organizations are important, how they are formed, how they operate, and what it means to be employed by an organization

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *List some of the reasons why it is important to know what organizations are and how they operate*

(2) *Identify what an organization is*

(3) *Delineate the major characteristics of formal organizations*

(4) *Delineate the major characteristics of informal organization*

(5) *Explain the significance of organization for individual workers*

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(A) Davis, Keith. *Human behavior at work: human relations and organizational behavior;* 4th ed. New York, N.Y. McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1972.

(B) Tannebaum, A.S. *Social psychology of the work organization.* Belmont, Calif. Wadsworth Publishing Co. 1966. (Publication out of print, may be available through local library.)

50

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Importance of Understanding About Organizations • Time Spent in Organzations (1)	Discuss the importance of organizations to individuals. (Ref. A, Chapters 11-14; Ref. B, Chapters 1-4)	Most Americans are job holders. Maybe as many as 95 percent of all who are employed work for someone or in an organization. Those of us who work spend about half of our working hours in work organizations such as factories, stores, service stations, and construction jobs. Since we spend so much time in organizations, it is important to understand what they are all about.
• Number of Work Organizations (1)	Ask students to list the organizations to which they belong and then to classify each organization according to its objectives, size, age, and degree of formality or informality.	As already suggested, the work of the world is performed by organizations. Whatever our jobs, the chances are very high that we will work in organizations.
• Organizations Influence and Modify Our Behavior (1)		As indicated, the study of human relations means the study of human behavior, particularly on the job. What we do on the job is decided basically by the organization, although when there is a union some of the rules and regulations are jointly derived.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		Consider, for example, that there are bosses (supervisors, managers, executives) in organizations who give us orders; that organizations except and demand workers to be at work at a certain specified time; and that work must be performed in a certain way.
• Behavior Is Influenced by Environment (1)		Much of the material in this training sequence focuses on individuals, but it is important to recognize that the work environment does influence what we do and how we do it. Therefore, we must understand organizations in order to be better observers of human relations at work. Also, we need to know that there are good and bad effects of organization on employers.
Identification of Organization • Combining Efforts (2) • A Pattern of Relations (2)	Discuss how supervisors define the jobs or roles the students have, how students define the jobs of their supervisors, and how others define these same jobs or roles.	In a basic way, when it is necessary to have two or more people carry out a project, we may say that there is an organization, for example, moving a boulder which is too large for one person to move. An organization is a combination or collection of resources, people, money, things, and ideas all brought together in order to achieve certain goals such as making a profit, or providing a service. An organization differs from an informal group such as the Friday night social group at the neighborhood tavern in that an organization has an established pattern between individuals and groups. Some people are authorized to give orders (bosses), and others are designated as ordertakers (workers). In organizations persons are told what to do, when to do it, how to do it, how much to do, and how well to do it. In other words, responsibilities are assigned to all employees, bosses, and others.
• Impersonal Systems for Producing Goods and Services (2)		Organizations are complicated, interrelated systems, somewhat like machines, where there are inputs (materials, and ideas), throughputs (processes), and outputs (products, services, or goods).
• Multiple-purpose Complex Entities (2)		An organization can be considered to be a blueprint to get things done. It is also many other things such as a (an): • Political process where individuals compete and bargain with one another.

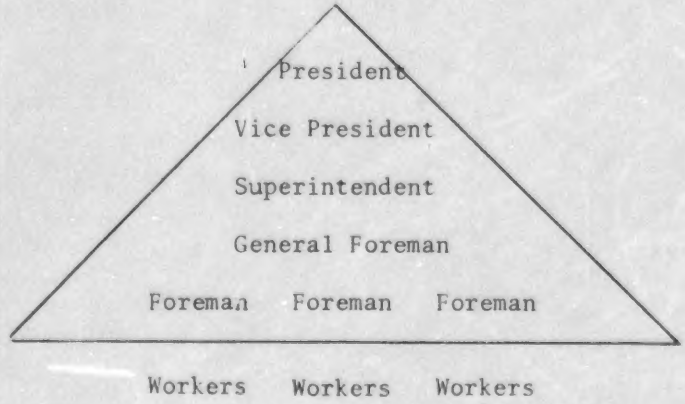
CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		• Process which determines status, that is, who will be important or more important than someone else. • Communications network, in that persons are told how to send message, to whom, when, and about what • Power grid, that is, who has the authority to give orders to whom, about what, and with what powers of enforcement • Informal social system where people acquire friends, create groups, and live together for seven or eight hours per day
• Composed of Formal and Informal Characteristics (2)		Every work organization has two sides to its character. On the formal side we can see organization charts designating who is in charge of which department and how the work is supposed to be done or flow, and we can see blueprints or job descriptions, budgets, and policies and procedures relating to the work to be done. The informal or human side of every organization consists of people with emotions, conflicts, interests, friends and maybe enemies. Every organization has rumors flying around, a certain amount of griping, and a certain amount of "goofing off" or, in other words, there are all kinds of human interaction which may or may not be doing exactly what the employer (the organization) had ordered the people to do. We are concerned in this module with both sides of the organizational coin — the formal and the informal.
Major Characteristics of Formal Organizations • Organizational Purposes or Objectives (3)	Discuss with students the reasons why employees agree to take orders from supervisors and managers in organizations. Consider the following: • Rewards and punishments they may give • Their "right" to fire people • Their expert knowledge • Their "rights" by law	It should be emphasized that no two organizations are alike. Indeed, they differ in size, shape, age, technology, number of people employed, products or services they produce, and how they are run. They all have in common the objective of being effective, that is, achieving their objectives (whatever they might be such as a contractor finishing a structure on time, a manufacturer producing goods, a school educating persons, or a church saving souls and doing it efficiently, that is, putting in or spending only what is really required to stay within a budget or to make a profit).

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Specific Organizational Objectives (3)	Explain that status means the importance that a group (or all of society) gives to a particular job, occupation, or role. Conduct a poll and ask students to assign status to the following occupations by rank ordering them from 1 (top) to 15 (bottom or lowest)	While all organizations strive to be effective and efficient, they also specify more particular objectives. (They do, that is, if there are competent bosses in charge of the organization.) For example, one business firm strives to be a leader or number one in its area, while another firm says all we want to be is number two. Another firm is very interested in giving its customers the very highest quality while a competing firm says, who cares, the only thing that counts is profit. Some organizations do not even know what it is they are trying to do. These are not the employers to be associated with.
• People in Organizations, Jobs, and Roles (3)	___ Business agent ___ Union president ___ Plumber ___ Carpenter ___ Drill press operator ___ Barber ___ Stenographer ___ Bookkeeper ___ Foreman ___ Banker ___ Physician ___ Professor ___ Supermarket checkout clerk ___ State senator ___ Professional football player	The idea of an organization is that the people in it do different things and become specialists. Everybody in an organization becomes a specialist, for example, the clerk, the secretary, the supervisor, the accountant, the tool crib manager, the person on the production line, and even the craftsman. (Craftsmen are less specialized because they can perform a variety of functions, but still within a relatively narrow band, such as carpenters and machinists.) Both white collar jobs and blue collar jobs are specialized. The larger the organization the greater the degree of specialization. The actions required of people in organizations, the things they do, and what they believe can be said to be the role played. Roles are the basic building blocks or atoms out of which an organization is fashioned. Organizations define jobs and roles and thus define or specify how people should behave in any and all parts of the organization. All roles throughout the organization are defined because the organization needs to control behavior and to have a master plan of all the specialists.
• Hierarchies or Pyramids (3)		All organizations can be pictured as one or several hierarchies or pyramids. Thus, in a simplified illustration shown on the next page there are several levels of supervision or bosses and subordinates. In real organizations it is usually more complex because there are other experts around (called staff or service) such as engineers, accountants, lawyers, and others.

CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION



60

- Authority or Chain of Command (3)

The popular term boss being used here means the people who represent authority and who can order subordinates in the pyramid to do their bidding. (Subject, of course, to collective bargaining, laws, and other constraints.)

Authority, to be more academic, is the formal right of a person by virtue of his role (position in the pyramid) to decide and determine what others will do in the organization.

The idea of authority is perhaps one of the most important when considering organizations or how they operate because it relates to the ultimate power to decide such things as how many people to employ, what types of products to make, which markets to manufacture for, and when to try new machinery. Because these are important decisions affecting everyone in the organization, the question of who should make them and what are the limitations on their power are of interest to all members of the organization.

- Coordination Predictability Order (3)

Formal organizations are built on the assumption that everything can be planned out in advance, all the roles defined, and people assigned so that things go along smoothly and automatically. When the organization is so formalized, it is referred to as an impersonal bureaucracy.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• Policies, Rules, and Regulations (3)		All formal organizations try to regulate exactly how people should behave by putting out rules, regulations, and policy statements to guide their employees. The larger and the older the organization, the greater the number of rules. That is why railroad unions have used the tactic of "working by the rules" instead of going on strike. The rules are so numerous and so contradictory that the organization cannot function when workers go by all the rules.
Major Characteristics of Informal Organizations • Definition and Importance (4)		Besides the formal planned aspects described above, all organizations have an informal human organization. This refers to the unplanned groups, cliques, relationships, and friendships that develop as people work together and therefore live together eight hours every day. Informal organizations can be neutral, for example, the four people who work in the shipping room go out every Friday for bowling and beer. They can be helpful to the formal organization, for example, the older members in the machine shop take the newcomer under their wing and make sure that he produces up to par, or they can fight the formal organization, for example, an informal group can punish (ostracize) someone who works too hard or too fast.
• Are Informal Organizations Necessary? (4)		Informal organizations are necessary because they perform such desired functions for their members as: • Relieve the strain and pressure of working • Give members status which they might not have in their official (formal) jobs • Get "the word" around • Help members decide how to behave But as specified above, informal groups can resist change, can slow down or otherwise prevent the formal organization from accomplishing its objectives.
Significance of Organizations for Individuals • Personal vs. Organizational Needs (5)	Ask members of the group to list, from personal experience, what they consider to be problems or difficulties in the organizations in which they have worked.	One of the most important reasons for trying to understand formal organizations is to be able to make better decisions about your own personal adjustment at work. If you know what it is you want and if you know what organizations have to have, then you are in a position to decide whether to stay or quit, buck for a promotion or not, or fight the system or not. You will also understand more about why unions are organized to balance the power of formal organizations.

UNIT 3

THE ISSUE OF JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB DISSATISFACTION

MODULE 9

Examines and draws sound personal conclusions about the widely discussed topic of worker satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Identify the major questions being raised about worker satisfaction and the evidence being used*

(2) *Identify which workers in which jobs have more or less job satisfaction*

(3) *Examine and analyze their personal views about work and working*

(4) *Identify the factors that are associated with job satisfaction-dissatisfaction*

(5) *Explain when, how, and why job satisfaction is important and when it is not*

(6) *List the solutions being offered to curtail or to eliminate worker discontent*

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CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Questions Relating to Worker Satisfaction • Current Assertions About Jobs and Work (1)	Discuss current assertions about jobs and work. (Ref. A; Ref. B)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Without attempting to include them all, here are a few selected statements that are being widely circulated in the mid-1970's:

- People no longer want to work.
- Workers are unhappy and alienated from their jobs.
- People will not tolerate poor jobs.
- Work today is pointless and empty.
- Jobs are dull, repetitive,and boring.
- Productivity of workers is low.

CONTENT

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

- Questions Raised by Writers and Analysts (1)

- Evidence To Support Worker Dissatisfaction (1)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Headline and magazine writers have had a field day thinking up different ways to assert that workers are unhappy. For example, consider the following:

- "The Blue Collar Blues"
- "Worker Blahs"
- "The Blue Collar Trap"
- "Who Wants to Work"

Although it would be difficult to obtain agreement as to why the questions are being asked, there is wide agreement that fundamental and important questions are being asked, such as the following:

- What is job satisfaction and dissatisfaction?
- Have the attitudes of workers really changed?
- Have life styles really changed?
- Have employers made jobs too routine or too boring?
- What does it all mean?
- Can we or should we change the way we produce goods?

Listed below are some trends which imply worker disenchantment with jobs according to some social critics:

- Young people are "dropping out" from schools and from work
- Absenteeism and turnover is higher today than in the past
- Apathy

In a government sponsored study (Ref. A), it is assumed that:

- Our great abundance and affluence mean a lower opinion and tolerance by workers of poor jobs
- The U.S. should provide more to workers than just monotonous jobs
- Young workers are insisting on more of a voice in things
- Traditional authority is being questioned

National opinion surveys, however, show that there is no conclusive evidence of any general or dramatic decline in job satisfaction, but it is important to look at specific jobs, workers, and industries.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Jobs That Give Workers More or Less Job Satisfaction • Consider the Craftsman (2)	Consider the information that is listed in national opinion surveys. Ask students to explain why they believe the data to be basically true or basically not true. (Ref. C).
• Consider the Unskilled or Semiskilled Person (2)	
• Consider Other Occupations and Occupational Groups (2)	

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

True craftsmen require long and varied training because they have to perform a great variety of tasks in many different situations. Every day the craftsman must solve all kinds of problems using a variety of tools, equipment, and materials. True craftsmen really enjoy the challenge of solving problems; to do something skillfully, quickly, and correctly brings immediate satisfaction to the true craftsman.

It is significant that opinion polls of worker attitudes substantiate the point that true craftsmen (tool and die workers, electricians, and m chinists) are not the people who are complaining about poor jobs and boredom in their work.

It is true that modern production lines have been engineered to permit people to do the required work with a minimum amount of training and skill. Most assembly line and production jobs are broken down into just a few motions or actions which are repeated throughout the day.

Traditionally such jobs have provided little job satisfaction, few promotional opportunities and little opportunity for the job holder to use imagination or intellect. People accept such jobs because they have no real choice. Many persons holding these jobs have, traditionally, been less than thrilled about their work. To them it is just a job that puts bread on the table.

The data from recent national opinion surveys include the following:

- Job satisfaction among blacks and other minority groups has been consistently lower than that of whites.
- Younger workers are less satisfied than older workers.
- Professional-technical workers, managers, officials, and proprietors register the highest levels of job satisfaction while operatives and nonfarm laborers register the lowest.
- Women workers with one or more children under six years of age in their homes are less satisfied than other women who do not have preschoolers or male workers in general.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Analysis of Personal Views About Work and Working • Assumptions About Work (3)	Ask students to discuss why some individuals answer in the following way when asked about their work: "I work for the ABC Company or the XYZ Company." In contrast other people answer, "I am a carpenter or an electrician" Why these kinds of answers? What do they mean?	Most of us do not spend too much time trying to define work or to philosophize about it, but the fact remains that we spend much of our lives at work. Work is central in our life. Thus, work is important to us. Work has changed over the years. Man has moved from hunting and fishing to agriculture or manufacture. From the days when men completed an entire job and saw the fruits of their labors (as for example in farming or in hunting) we have moved to the present where millions of people perform very specialized jobs.
• Have Assumptions About Work Changed? (3)		Some people suggest that our views about work and working have indeed changed or are rapidly changing. Consider what they say about how people view the Protestant Ethic. This idea, once strongly endorsed by many people in the U.S., says that work is necessary for man's salvation. It is not only good, it is the way to heaven, but today many critics are saying that the Protestant Ethic is not accepted by as many people as in the past. Consider our changing and often confusing views about work and welfare. Some people say, and quite seriously, that perhaps work is unnecessary, that not all the people in the country are really needed to do whatever work is required and, therefore, those not needed should be taken care of through a welfare system.
Factors Related to Job Satisfaction or Dissatisfaction • Five Relatively Independent Job Satisfaction Factors (4)		Listed below are five relatively independent factors relating to job satisfaction: • Work itself (the tasks, duties, responsibilities, and problems) • Pay • Supervision received • Opportunity for promotion • Types or characteristics of coworkers Just exactly which of these factors predominates at any time depends on many other factors such as the worker's age, marital status, and financial need.

CONTENT

- Major Job Satisfaction Factors (4)

INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS

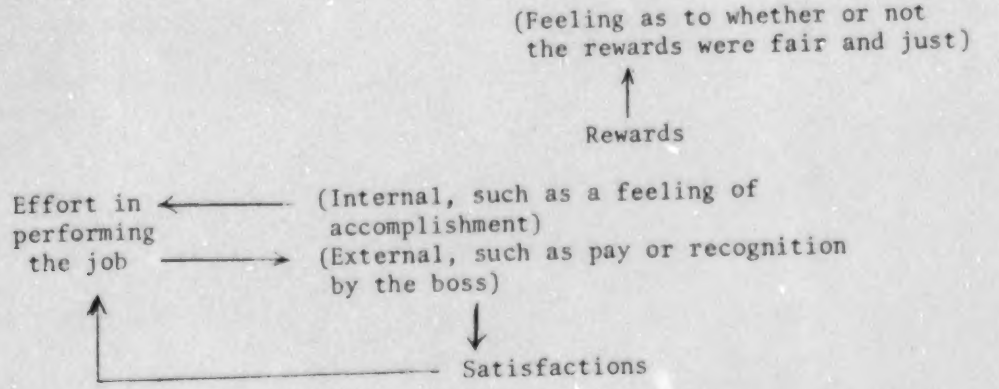
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Maintenance factors in a job (sometimes called hygienic factors) are those conditions and arrangements that are required at minimum just to maintain us or to permit us to do our jobs. Specifically, maintenance factors in a job are such things as the work rules, the type of supervisors and how they supervise, the fringe benefits, and even pay itself. It is suggested by some that if these maintenance factors are not as good as we think they should be that we, as workers, tend to be unhappy. The important point is that these working conditions and pay (maintenance factors) are not the positive side of job satisfaction.

Motivation factors in a job are, according to some people, the positive things from which workers derive positive job satisfaction and include accomplishing a job, getting recognition for a job that is well done, getting a promotion; in other words, achievement.

- Graphic Analysis of Individual Effort and Job Satisfaction (4)

If the worker's effort is not recognized, then the performance will be affected. Some of the person's needs will not be met and job satisfaction will tend to go down. This is shown in the simplified diagram given below.


(Feeling as to whether or not the rewards were fair and just)
Rewards
Effort in performing the job
(Internal, such as a feeling of accomplishment)
(External, such as pay or recognition by the boss)
Satisfactions

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
Importance of Job Satisfaction When, How, and Why • Job Satisfaction Is Important (5)	Discuss with students the importance of being able to attain satisfaction on the job. (Ref. B, Chapter 1)	To prove that this proposition is true, a number of arguments have been made such as the following. • People really want to work and they derive benefits from it. For example, consider that many people who are retired or who are financially independent still accept all kinds of jobs. • Without real work people begin to deteriorate mentally and physically. • People really try to do the most that they can with their abilities and they can realize themselves at the work place.
• Job Satisfaction Is Not Important (5)		The arguments on this side of the case are as follows. • People do not need to work to fulfill themselves because they can find satisfaction in their families, clubs, and churches. • Some people prefer routine jobs where they do not have to think. • Leisure is more important than work. • Some jobs have to be dull and boring.
Reducing or Eliminating Worker Discontent • Reforms and Innovations (6)		Listed below are suggested ways of reducing or eliminating worker discontent. • Autonomous work groups: Giving complete responsibility to groups and teams of people for all the tools and supplies required to do a complete job, for example, four workers who put together a complete automobile engine with team members deciding who will do what, when, and how • Job enlargement and job enrichment: Changing jobs to include more or different duties and responsibilities • New leadership styles: Providing for more participative (democratic) forms of leadership instead of autocratic supervision • Self-Government: Relying less on unilateral autocratic management and providing for more worker autonomy

UNIT 3

MODULE 10

WHAT LEADERS DO AND HOW THEY DO IT

Examines what leaders do, how they do it, and the problems they have in attempting to carry out their organizational objectives

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

(1) *Identify why apprentices should know about leadership practice*

(2) *Define leadership*

(3) *List specific things that leaders do in their leadership role*

(4) *Identify what supervisors (appointed leaders) seek to achieve*

(5) *Explain how leaders achieve their goals; how they get followers to follow*

(6) *Identify some of the limiting factors as to how a leader can operate*

(7) *Identify some of the useful principles or propositions about leadership practice*

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(B) Maier, N.R.F. *Psychology in industrial organizations*; 4th. ed. New York, N.Y. Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1973.

63

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS
Importance of Understanding Leadership Procedures • Able To Assume Leadership Role (1)	Discuss with the students the importance of being able to assume the role of a leader. (Ref. A; Ref. B, Chapter 1)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Even though a person is not officially designated as a leader (or supervisor) most of us are called upon to assume leadership responsibility from time to time. Suppose, for an easy illustration, you and four of your friends are discussing what to do on Friday night. Suppose that you strongly suggest and they agree that all of you should go bowling on Friday night. You have influenced the activities or behavior of a group. You have performed a leadership act.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
• May Advance to Supervisor (1)		It is a fact that official leaders in unions, companies, and elsewhere are paid more than the people who are supervised. For this and other reasons such as prestige, it is quite natural to aspire to become a leader. Because so many leaders are required to conduct our complicated affairs, it is an expectation that can be realized by many.
• All Are Followers from Time to Time (1)		As a follower we are asked to respond to leaders. The more we know about leadership the more we appreciate what leaders must do and the greater are our chances of being reasonably satisfied at work. Or in reverse, we will have fewer complaints if we see what leaders can and cannot do.
Leadership		
• Simple Definition (2)		Leaders are people who are able to attract and hold followers. Therefore, leadership is getting and holding followers.
• Scientific Definition (2)		According to our best social science theory, leadership is a process in which a leader influences the individual efforts of a person or persons to achieve a stated goal.
• Difference Between Appointed or Elected to a Leader's Role (2)		Some leaders are appointed to their jobs, such as foremen in industry and officers in the Army while others are elected by a group, for example, the officers in a local union. There are important differences between being appointed to a job (this is called headship) and being elected by a group to serve their interests (leadership). The basic difference between the two types relates to goals and objectives. Foremen who are appointed to their jobs have their goals set for them by somebody else (for example, production, and schedules) while elected leaders have more freedom to use their own discretion.
Functions of Leadership	Compare and contrast the functions of appointed leaders (supervisors in a factory) with elected leaders (union officials) an executives, planners, policy members, spokesmen,	Social scientists have been studying leadership for many years because leadership is so important in all walks of life. From these studies have been distilled a number of specific acts or functions performed by leaders which are listed below:
• Many Faces of Leadership (3)		• Executive — coordinates the activities and assigns work to be done to other members

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
	controllers, philosophers and other figures.	• Planner — decides ways and means by which a group will achieve its goals • Policy maker — establishes the group's goals and objectives • Expert — often the source of special information or the best at something • Spokesman — represents the group with the outside world • Controller — governs the group, controls fighting, and establishes who will do what • Giver of rewards and punishments — applies rewards and penalties as part of his control • Example — sometimes serves as model of how to behave in a group • Substitute — relieves members of necessity for making decisions and takes the heat when things go wrong • Philosopher — establishes and communicates the main idea and beliefs of the group • Father figure — represents the symbol of authority and is an emotional crutch
• Variations in Emphasis (3)		How and when many of the functions are performed depends, of course, on the circumstances, which vary considerably. The followers change, the group goals may change, and most important of all, things are never static, so that outside forces are always pressing on the group. In other words, the situation varies. Today in a factory everything is going smoothly but tomorrow may present a crisis. The leadership functions must vary with the circumstances.
Goals of Supervisors • Goals and Expectations (4)		Supervisors seek to achieve the following goals: • Willingness to perform at the proper levels over long periods of time • Good performance • Willingness and readiness to accept changes frequently • Suggestions for improvement • Minimum absenteeism and tardiness • Maximum individual initiative

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
How Leaders Achieve Goals	Discuss why some leaders succeed and why some fail.	
• Use Strength (be authoritative) (5)		This strategy is one where the leader (say of a street gang) may actually impose his will by violence. In a work setting, the autocratic supervisor (appointed leader) may threaten to fire or otherwise punish the nonperformer.
• Is Using Strength and Power Good Strategy? (5)		It may have been in times past, but it is quite inappropriate in this day and age. Consider some of the following factors and consequences. • Lifestyles have changed. We no longer tolerate overly strict discipline and no longer use whips. • Supervisors no longer have the right to fire people on the spot. Unions and collective bargaining insist on due process and the right of appeal. • Followers will often only perform the minimum amount; they might be be resentful. • Using muscle and being strong means that followers may fight back; they may become frustrated.
• Persuasion and Paternalism (5)		A strategy used by some leaders is that of paternalism, like the relationship between a father and a son. In this strategy the leader assumes that he knows what is good for the followers and he provides it. The leader decides on and provides good conditions and rewards. A variation on this leadership approach is the sales approach. The leader decides by himself what has to be done, or when or how, and then persuades (sells) his followers on the idea.
• Consequences of Persuading and Being Good to People (5)		These leadership strategies have sometimes been successful. Consider the following consequences of being good to people. • Some people do not like being treated like dependent children. • If leaders attempt to be good and provide all sorts of "goodies," the followers soon take these for granted and then ask for more.

- If leaders use the "hard sell", followers may later have second thoughts about the whole thing.
- Some people think that paternalism and persuasion is just another form of being autocratic with just a sugar coating.

- Be Democratic, (5)

For some leaders in some situations a democratic-participative style of leadership leads to effective performance in that there is high satisfaction and spirit in the group, willingness and cooperation, and responsible mature behavior in which followers do not have to be told exactly what to do. Followers are motivated and responsible.

- How Democratic Can You Be? (5)

Getting members of a group to participate in decisionmaking (this is a working definition of democracy) can vary from quite little to almost equal representation. The spectrum includes the following.

- The leader has made a decision about something affecting the group but asks members of the group if they understand why and how.
- The leader makes a tentative decision and asks followers what they think about it. The leader may change his decision.
- The leader takes the problem to the group, asks for suggestions on how to handle, and then decides.
- The leader takes the problem to his group, sets the limits on the decision and then asks the group to make the choice.

- Is Democratic Leadership Always Best? (5)

The word always is a dead giveaway because few statements about most subjects can be said to be true always. While democratic leadership does start with the valid proposition that people can be trusted, that they are not lazy, that they can be responsible, that they can and will work on their own if given an opportunity to do so, it does not mean that all decisions should be left to the group.

For one thing, members of the group may not know enough about a problem to even make good suggestions. For another thing, appointed leaders (supervisors in industry) do not have too much freedom or discretion to begin with. There may not be enough time to allow discussion because it may be a crisis.

CONTENT	INSTRUCTIONAL SUGGESTIONS	BACKGROUND INFORMATION
		The majority in a group may silence or tyrannize the individual. The followers may feel that they do not have official responsibility and should not even be asked how to run things.
Limiting Factors in Leadership		
• The Leader Himself (6)		It is a fact that people are different and that some leaders find it difficult to conduct discussions with their subordinates about or how things should be done. In other cases some leaders are not skilled in conducting group discussions with their group. Finally, if a leader has been effective using an authoritative style over a period of many years, it is next to impossible to ask him to change in midstream.
• The Organization and the Boss (6)		Appointed leaders (supervisors) work with other bosses who tell them what must be done, when, and how. It is difficult, if not impossible, to ask members of the group to make decisions, particularly if such decisions might be different from what the boss wants.
• The Union (6)		Unions are vitally interested in how an organization conducts its affairs. Everything from hiring, to using and firing people is subject to joint determination through collective bargaining. The days of unilateral decisions by supervisors are over.
• Job Definition (6)		Appointed leaders have their jobs defined for them by an organization. In many cases they have little choice or freedom in decisionmaking For example, a foreman is never given as much discretion as is the president of a company.
• Technology and Work Process (6)		In some cases an appointed leader can do little consulting with the group because of the way the work has to be done. For example, consider a modern assembly line. The line is engineered in certain ways which permit little or few variations. A supervisor might consult with his group about rotating on some of the required jobs or about the best way to handle absentees, but the assembly line does not give the supervisor too much decisionmaking discretion.
• Contingency Theory (6)		This modern theory of leadership proves that several leadership styles can be effective. Whether or not a leader is effective is determined by the interaction of followers with factors such as

those listed above, namely, how the leader's job is defined, how much decisionmaking power he has been given, whether the followers like and trust the leader, and the tasks to be performed (the technology). This contingency theory says that leadership is not a simple operation but that it all depends on a number of interacting factors.

Principles of Leadership

- Leadership Skills (7)

The ability to talk and to communicate is essential for a leader. It is a difficult if not an impossible task to be a leader without the ability to communicate. The leader must be able to state what the problems are, what the right goals are, and how the group can achieve its goals. He asks questions, he summarizes, he interprets, he clarifies, and he reflects the feelings of the group. Communications ability is a must.

- Leadership Ideas (7)

The leader's style will be influenced by the style of persons who lead him.

Machiavelli was right in many respects. For example, managers without real influence or power should not promise to do things for employees which they cannot deliver. This leads to dissatisfaction.

Increasing the pressure to increase production or to cut costs can and usually does lead to the opposite result from that which is desired.

There are many types, sizes, shapes, and models of successful managers. There is no ideal type. Jobs and organizations greatly modify what managers can and cannot do. Managers have to be leaders.

An effective leader knows and practices the art of setting goals, of "stretching" people, of focusing on results to be obtained. Mixing and socializing with members of a group is generally not good leadership practice.

Good managers know where their time goes; they know how to set priorities. Effective leaders do not duck controversy and dissent; they relish it, learn from it, and take it into account when making decisions. A leader never stops learning and growing.